The apicoplast link to fever-survival and artemisinin-resistance in the malaria

parasite

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ABSTRACT

Background: The emergence and spread of *Plasmodium falciparum* parasites resistant

to front-line antimalarial artemisinin-combination therapies (ACT) threatens to erase the

considerable gains against the disease of the last decade. We developed a new large-

scale phenotypic screening pipeline and used it to carry out the first large-scale forward-

genetic phenotype screen in *P. falciparum* to identify genes that allow parasites to

survive febrile temperatures.

Results: Screening identified more than 200 *P. falciparum* mutants with differential

responses to increased temperature. These mutants were more likely to be sensitive to

artemisinin derivatives as well as to heightened oxidative stress. Major processes critical

for *P. falciparum* tolerance to febrile temperatures and artemisinin included highly

essential, conserved pathways associated with protein-folding, heat-shock and

proteasome-mediated degradation, and unexpectedly, isoprenoid biosynthesis, which

originated from the ancestral genome of the parasite's algal endosymbiont-derived

plastid, the apicoplast. Apicoplast-targeted genes in general were up-regulated in

response to heat shock, as were other *Plasmodium* genes with orthologs in plant and

algal genomes.

Conclusions*: Plasmodium falciparum* parasites appear to exploit their innate febrile-

response mechanisms to mediate resistance to artemisinin. Both responses depend on

endosymbiotic cynobacterium-related ancestral genes in the parasite's genome,

suggesting a link to the evolutionary origins of *Plasmodium* parasites in free-living

ancestors.

Running title: Plastid metabolism enables malaria parasites to survive fever and

artemisinin

Key words: genome-wide phenotypic screens, *piggyBac,* QIseq, heat shock, growth

fitness, transposon-mediated mutagenesis, phenotypic functional profiling

INTRODUCTION

Malaria remains a leading infectious disease causing >200 million clinical cases and a

half-million deaths every year. *Plasmodium falciparum* is the deadliest malaria parasite

by far, with growing parasite resistance to front-line antimalarial artemisinin-combination

therapies (ACT) threatening to erase the considerable gains against the disease of the

last decade. Alarmingly, data indicate that for the first time since 2010, progress in

reducing global burden of malaria cases and fatalities nearly flatlined between 2015 and

2017 [1]. New therapies, ideally informed by an understanding of basic parasite biology,

are needed to confront these urgent threats to global malaria control. The study of

malaria-parasite biology and gene-function has traditionally been limited, because

targeted gene-by-gene approaches are laborious and fraught with difficulty due to an

AT-rich (~82%) genome that limits scalability of specific targeted gene-editing methods

(such as CRISPR). Despite the considerable knowledge gene-by-gene studies have

enabled, and the ~two decades that have passed since the *P. falciparum* genome was

completed [2], the limited throughput of targeted gene-editing strategies combined with

evolutionary distance of *P. falciparum* from classical model eukaryotes has left >90% of

genes untouched experimentally, and ~35% of the parasite's ~5474 genes without

meaningful functional annotation (www.plasmodb.org) [3]. High-throughput methods for

functionally profiling the malaria-parasite genome can hasten development of effective

interventions to control a parasite proven to be an adaptable foe.

Parasite-specific processes essential for parasite survival are naturally attractive as

potential drug-targets, given the decreased likelihood of deleterious off-target effects to

the host. One such process ripe for interrogation is the parasite's survival-response to

the extreme conditions of the host's malarial fever. Repeating fever is a hallmark of all

types of malaria and the cyclical patterns serve as key diagnostic features of infections.

In malignant tertian malaria caused by *P. falciparum,* the 48-hour cycle corresponds to

the parasite's asexual intraerythrocytic-stage life-cycle, wherein parasites invade,

develop, asexually replicate and then rupture their host red blood cell (RBC) to begin the

destructive blood-stage cycle anew. Host fever is triggered by a Type I shock-like

response of the innate immune-system exposure to extracellular parasite debris

released when infected RBCs are lysed during parasite egress. Malarial fever

concomitantly attenuates and synchronizes development of blood-stage *P. falciparum*

infections, as it is lethal to all parasite stages except for early intraerythrocytic ring

stages. However, parasite tolerance of febrile temperatures is crucial for its successful

propagation in human populations as well as a fundamental aspect of malaria

pathogenesis. Previous research suggests parasite-specific factors play a role in

modulating this tolerance for febrile temperatures, though the identities of many of these

factors or the mechanisms by which they operate remain uncertain [4, 5].

We previously used random *piggyBac*-transposon insertional mutagenesis to uncover

genes essential for *P. falciparum* blood-stage survival, generating a saturation-level *P.*

falciparum mutant library containing ~38,000 single-disruption mutants [6]. We defined

2680 genes as essential for asexual blood-stage growth, including ~1000 *Plasmodium-*

conserved genes of unknown function. Here we demonstrate the potential of this

piggyBac-mutant (*pB*-mutant) library to systematically assign functional annotation to the

P. falciparum genome by genome-wide phenotypic screens. In this study, we present the

first large-scale forward-genetic functional screen in *P. falciparum* to identify factors

linked to parasite survival of febrile temperatures. Importantly, we functionally annotate

hundreds of parasite genes as critical for the parasite's response to heat shock (HS) but

dispensable under ideal growth-conditions, ~26% of which were previously unannotated

with no known function. Expression-profiling the HS-responses in two different heat

shock-sensitive (HS-Sensitive) *pB*-mutant clones vs. the wildtype parent NF54 via

RNAseq revealed concordance between (1) genes regulated in the parasite's innate

response to HS, (2) the processes dysregulated in these mutants vs. wildtype responses

to HS, and (3) those mutants we identified as HS-Sensitive in our pooled screens.

Together these analyses identify genes and pathways essential in the HS-response,

implicating oxidative stress and protein-damage responses, host-cell remodelling, and

unexpectedly, apicoplast isoprenoid biosynthesis. Apicoplast-targeted genes in general

were up-regulated in response to HS, as were other *Plasmodium* genes with orthologs in

plant and algal genomes. Finally, parallel phenotyping of a mutant library revealed a

significant overlap between parasite pathways underlying the response to febrile

temperatures and those implicated in the artemisinin mechanism of action (MOA),

including oxidative stress, protein-damage responses, and apicoplast-mediated vesicular

trafficking [7, 8]. Mutants in known protein-targets of artemisinin tended to be sensitive to

HS [9], and expression-data from recent field-isolates directly correlates artemisinin-

resistance with HS tolerance in our pooled screen [10]. Further, we found the key K13-

associated parasite endocytosis pathway linked to artemisinin resistance [11, 12] is also

downregulated in response to HS. Together these data identify an unexpected link

between artemisinin MOA, HS-survival, and algal origins of the apicoplast, suggesting

the parasite exploits its innate fever-response mechanisms to gain resistance to

artemisinin. This study creates a blueprint for developing a large-scale phenotypic

screening pipeline of the *P. falciparum pB*-mutant library to enable high-throughput

interrogation of phenotypes of interest to hasten further biological insight that can be

weaponized against the parasite.

RESULTS

Pooled screens of an extensively characterized pB-mutant clone-library allow

robust identification of heat-shock phenotypes

To interrogate pathways and processes associated with parasite survival at febrile

temperatures, we developed a large-scale phenotypic screening pipeline to analyze the

phenotypes in pooled *pB*-mutant parasites exposed to HS-induced stress (Fig. S1). We

previously demonstrated using individual clonal *pB*-mutant parasite lines that mutant

growth-phenotypes can be detected and differentiated in pooled screening utilizing

QIseq—"Sensitive" mutants with disruptions in genes/genomic features important for

growth have lower QIseq reads, while "Neutral" disruptions in features not vital for

growth under the same conditions have higher reads [13]. We therefore reasoned that

mutants with mutations in genes underlying the HS-response would grow poorly in

response to HS compared to mutants in genes not contributing to HS-survival.

We used a pool of 128 unique, extensively characterized *P. falciparum pB*-mutant clones

reflecting disruptions in genes spanning a range of functional categories, as well as

many genes without existing functional information, as a "pilot-library" for initial

phenotypic screen-development ([13, 14]; Methods, *Generating the pilot-library of* pB-

mutant parasite clones). An *in vitro* HS-screen of this pilot-library, adapted from a

phenotype-screen of many *pB*-mutant-clones comprising the pilot-library [15], defined *pB*-

mutant HS-response phenotypes to fever-like temperatures (Fig. 1A-E, Table S1A-C,

Methods). We next calculated a measure of fitness for each mutant in response to HS

while also taking into account inherent differences in mutant-growth in ideal conditions,

which we termed the Phenotypic-Fitness Score in response to HS (PFS$_{HS}$; Methods).

The PFS$_{HS}$ result was consistent with a previously reported flow cytometry-based assay

of 25 individual *piggyBac*-mutant clones in response to heat-shock (Wilcoxon p < 0.01,

Fig 1F; [15]). We classified 28 mutants of the pilot-library as HS-Sensitive (Fig. 1E-H,

indicated in red; Table S1A-C). Fourteen mutants performed poorly in both the Growth-

and HS-Screens (Fig. 1E,G, yellow). We classified 28 mutants displaying a slight growth

advantage in response to HS (Fig. 1E,G, green) as "HS-Tolerant". Mutants exhibiting

neither sensitivity nor tolerance to HS were classified as HS-Neutral (n = 49).

QIseq-data resulting from the HS- and Growth-screens allowed robust assignment of

mutant-phenotypes for both (see Methods). We primarily classified mutants sensitive to

heat-shock alone as HS-Sensitive to avoid possible over-interpretation of generally-sick

Growth-Sensitive mutants (Fig. 1G-H).

Pooled phenotypic screens scaled up to a 1K *pB*-mutant library enable

identification of processes driving the *P. falciparum* heat-shock response

We next scaled our pooled HS-screen to a mutant library of 922 functionally

uncharacterized mutants using the methods we established in our pilot-library screens

(Table S2A-C). This 1K-library comprised 12 large mixed-population pools of uncloned

mutants randomly selected from our saturation library and subjected to phenotypic

screens in parallel. Insertion-sites were unknown until the 1K-library HS-Screen and

QIseq were completed. Mutants were ranked by fold-change growth in response to HS

from HS-Sensitive to HS-Tolerant, as per cut-offs determined from our pilot-library

screens. Our analysis distinguished 149 mutants growing well in ideal growth conditions

but poorly in response to HS as HS-Sensitive (Fig. 2A), while 91 mutants performed

poorly in both the Growth- and HS-screens. Of the remaining mutants, 139 HS-Tolerant

mutants had slightly better growth in HS than ideal growth-conditions, while 543

classified as HS-Neutral were neither sensitive nor tolerant.

This larger scale of screening covering genes annotated to diverse GO-categories, as

well as many genes of unknown function, allowed us to assess gene functional-

enrichment in HS-Sensitive and Growth-Sensitive phenotypic categories vs all other

mutants in the 1K-library. HS-Sensitive mutants were enriched in GO terms associated

with HS-response such as protein-folding, response to DNA-damage, DNA-repair, and

regulation of vesicle-mediated transport, broadly in agreement with processes identified

to underlie the HS-response by more conventional gene expression-based methods [4, 5].

Growth-Sensitive mutants tended to be enriched for more general categories broadly

important for survival in all conditions, such as translation- or mRNA-metabolism-related

terms (Fig. 2B), as might be expected given the high essentiality of these processes in

ideal growth [6, 16].

Increased transcription of the unfolded protein response (UPR), organelle-

targeted stress-response pathways and host-cell remodeling characterize the

parasite HS-response

We first characterized the wildtype parent-NF54 transcriptome in response to HS to

establish a baseline for comparison using an experimental design similar to a prior study

assessing transcriptional changes in response to febrile temperatures via microarray [5].

The HS assay-design mimicking parasite exposure to malarial fever was modelled after

conditions we established for our pooled-screens (Methods). RNAseq was performed on

heat-shocked parasites vs. a non-heat-shocked control. Genes identified as differentially

expressed in response to febrile temperatures vs. 37°C were classified into three

different categories based on direction of response in the wildtype parasite: (1)

upregulated in response to HS; (2) downregulated in HS, and (3) neutral in HS (Fig. 3A-

B, Table S3A-D). The majority of genes expressed above threshold in our analysis were

HS-neutral (1541 genes out of 2567, or ~60%) and were enriched for genes involved in

general housekeeping functions such as the proteasome core complex (ubiquitin-

proteasome system), the ubiquitin-dependent ERAD-pathway, and regulators thereof),

RNA metabolism (RNA-binding, mRNA-splicing) and transport functions (e.g. protein

import into nucleus, vesicle-mediated transport). We primarily considered genes

upregulated in HS as drivers of the HS-response.

Genes upregulated in HS (↑, n = 415) tended to be enriched for processes such as

protein-folding, unfolded protein-binding, response to heat, mitochondrial processes, and

host-cell remodelling-associated exported proteins localizing to the Maurer's clefts (Fig.

3B, Table S3C-D). Genes downregulated in HS (↓, n = 611) tended to be enriched for

pathogenesis-related functions and components of the parasite invasion machinery,

such as entry/exit from the host cell and cell-cell adhesion, and organelles including the

inner-membrane pellicle complex, micronemes, and rhoptries. These data are in general

agreement with previously-reported processes expected to drive the parasite HS-

response [4, 5].

We reasoned that genes dysregulated in HS-Sensitive mutants compared to wildtype

underlie the HS-response. We chose two individual HS-Sensitive mutant clonal lines

satisfying several careful criteria for additional profiling via RNAseq to identify

dysregulated genes responsible for this sensitivity: *ΔDHC* and *ΔLRR5* (dynein heavy-

chain gene PF3D7_1122900 and leucine-rich repeat protein PF3D7_1432400). Criteria

for selection: i) Specificity of phenotype. Both mutants are highly sensitive to heat shock

(PFS < 0.1), but under ideal culture conditions grow better than most other mutants in

the pilot library (exhibiting higher fold change than 95.3% and 83.6% mutants,

respectively). ii) Clear functional consequences of disruption. Both are presumed loss-of-

function mutants with a single disruption in the coding region of a gene determined to be

dispensable for asexual blood-stage growth under ideal culture conditions[6] . iii) GO

classification. GO classifications of LRR5 and DHC are representative of the broad

functional categories we found to be associated with heat response in our earlier small

screen[15] and other reports (regulating gene expression and intracellular vesicular

transport, respectively), yet interactions between these pathways are undefined. Finally,

iv) Clonal phenotype validation. Both mutant lines were validated in a heat shock assay

of individual clones[15], but otherwise these genes were not previously implicated in the

HS-response of malaria parasites.

The 1298 genes which could be classified into HS-response categories across all three

parasites were analyzed for functional-enrichment (Table S3B). The majority of genes

were HS-neutral across all three parasites and were enriched for essential

housekeeping functions (n = 615; Table S3B-D). We reasoned these non-HS-regulated

genes have functions too important for basic survival to tolerate large stress-associated

expression-changes, and these genes were not considered drivers of the HS-response.

We identified 94 genes significantly upregulated in HS across all three parasites (↑↑↑),

which were functionally enriched for protein-folding, chaperone-related processes, and

other processes related to heat-stress and the UPR, in agreement with previous

expression-based studies [5], as well as enrichment-results from HS-Sensitive mutants in

our pooled screening, indicating the parasite increases production of heat-shock proteins

(HSPs) and associated chaperones to repair the glut of proteins damaged/misfolded by

heat-stress (Table S3B-D). Energy-producing processes (gluconeogenesis, glycolysis)

were also upregulated, suggesting the parasite reroutes anabolic metabolism to increase

energy production to support ATP-dependent processes such as protein-refolding to

correct heat-damaged proteins. Genes upregulated in HS were further enriched for

processes involved in host-cell remodeling, including genes targeted to the Maurer's

clefts, the host cell, and intracellular vesicles—all known to be important for parasite-

remodeling of the host-cell to promote structural reinforcement against heat-shock

damage to ensure its own survival [4, 5]. Organellar targeting to the mitochondria and

apicoplast are also enriched in upregulated HS-responsive genes. The parasite's

increased utilization of mitochondrial stress-response pathways may aid in degrading

heat-damaged proteins that cannot be correctly refolded. Increased activity in the food

digestive vacuole may allow the parasite to phagocytose and eliminate toxic misfolded

protein-aggregates. The apicoplast involvement, particularly the isoprenoid biosynthesis

pathway, has not been previously implicated in the HS-response.

Genes downregulated in all three parasites in response to HS ($\downarrow\downarrow\downarrow$, n = 205) were

enriched for virulence-factor and invasion-machinery-associated GO terms, suggesting

the parasite decreases production of transcripts associated with pathogenesis, invasion

and egress, lengthening its intracellular recovery-time to address global protein-damage.

Both HS-Sensitive mutants share many characteristic features of the wildtype response

to febrile temperatures, which likely enabled their survival (Fig. 3A-B, red, blue; Table

S3C-D). We identified two primary expression categories of genes dysregulated in the

HS-Senstive mutants: (1) genes upregulated in the wildtype HS-response that were

otherwise dysregulated in the HS-Sensitive mutants, which we interpreted as loss-of-

function changes ($\uparrow\nearrow\nearrow$, n=83), and (2) genes that were not regulated in response to HS

in the wildtype but were upregulated in the HS-Sensitive mutants ($-\uparrow\uparrow$, n = 74),

presumably equivalent to dominant-negative gain-of-function changes (Fig. 3A-B, ochre

and tan, respectively). This first category of mutant-dysregulated genes (↑✗✗) was

enriched for the UPR, as well as mitochondrial and apicoplast-localized pathways

(cytochrome oxidase-assembly and fatty-acid biosynthesis, respectively). Several

apicoplast isoprenoid biosynthesis-related genes upregulated in the wildtype HS-

response were additionally dysregulated in one or both HS-Sensitive *pB*-mutant clones

(Fig. 3C). The second category of mutant-dysregulated genes (− ↑↑), those that are not

HS-responsive in wildtype, were enriched for translation-associated processes.

These data taken together suggest underlying mechanisms responsible for the HS-

response. Critically, HS-Sensitive mutants fail to upregulate mitochondrial and apicoplast

stress-response pathways, as well as signal peptide-processing pathways that might

enable appropriate activation of those pathways. Mutants do not increase production of

transcripts associated with responding to unfolded proteins. HS-Sensitive mutants

additionally upregulate translation-related processes in response to HS when translation

should be paused or neutral. This increase may overwhelm the parasite's capacity to

repair or degrade heat-damaged proteins, exacerbating the formation/accumulation of

toxic misfolded-protein aggregates that increase parasite sensitivity to HS.

Apicoplast isoprenoid biosynthesis is critical for *P. falciparum* survival of febrile

temperatures

We examined our RNAseq data more closely to discern contributions of the apicoplast to

HS-survival (Fig. 4A-E; Table S4A-D). We found that apicoplast-targeted genes tended

to be increased in response to HS as compared to all non-apicoplast-targeted genes

(Fig. 4A), were more likely to be essential during ideal blood-stage growth conditions

(Fig. 4B), were enriched for stress-response processes such as the UPR and oxidative-

stress, and less expectedly, isoprenoid biosynthesis (Fig. 4C). As a major function of

isoprenoid biosynthesis is in protein-prenylation—an important post-translational

modification that regulates protein-targeting and function throughout the cell—we

hypothesized that mutants in known-prenylated proteins [17, 18] would also have a

phenotype in HS. We examined our 1K mutant-library for representation of isoprenoid

biosynthesis, its immediate upstream-regulators (proteins responsible for modulation

and import of glycolytic intermediates that serve as pathway substrates), and immediate

downstream-effector proteins, and found that all eight isoprenoid biosynthesis-related

pB-mutants included in the pooled screen were indeed HS-Sensitive (Fig. 4D, Table

S4C).

Based on these data we further hypothesized that proteins or pathways allowing *P.*

falciparum survival of febrile temperatures would be absent or otherwise divergent in

Plasmodium species whose hosts do not mount fever-responses. We therefore

compared the apicoplast isoprenoid biosynthesis pathway between *P. falciparum* and

two rodent-infective species, *P. berghei* and *P. yoelii*. We found key thiamine-synthesis

enzymes directly upstream of the pathway missing in the rodent-infective malaria

parasites, including hydroxy-ethylthiazole kinase (ThzK); ThzK is up-regulated in the

canonical parasite response to febrile temperatures and dysregulated in HS-Sensitive

mutants (Fig. 4E, Table S4C-D). Perhaps most importantly, DOXP-Synthase (DXS), the

critical enzyme marking the first step in isoprenoid biosynthesis, is upregulated in HS,

dysregulated in HS-Sensitive mutants, and was HS-Sensitive in pooled screening, as

were all four members of the prenylated blood-stage proteome represented in our

screen (Fig. 4E, Table S4C-D). These data taken together strongly implicate isoprenoid

biosynthesis in the HS-response.

Though the apicoplast has not previously been implicated in parasite survival of febrile

temperatures, there is extensive literature on the ability of plants to mount effective

defenses against heat as well as other external stressors, particularly critical for non-

motile organisms at the mercy of their environments. We investigated the relationship

between the parasite's HS-response and "plant-like" stress-responses by evaluating

phyletic distribution of parasite HS-response genes in representative plant and algal

genomes. *P. falciparum* genes with plant orthologs indicating potential endosymbiont-

ancestry tended to be increased in response to HS vs. genes that do not have plant

orthologs (Fig. 4F). These lines of evidence considered together present an evolutionary

explanation that endosymbiosis of the apicoplast's algal progenitor enabled parasite-

survival of extreme temperatures.

Processes enabling parasites to survive fever also drive resistance to artemisinin

We noted similarities between processes we identified to be driving the parasite HS-

response and those implicated in parasite-resistance to artemisinin [7, 8, 10]. Therefore, we

did a series of parallel phenotype-screens of our *pB*-mutant pilot-library using sublethal

concentrations of two artemisinin compounds (dihydroartemisinin, DHA; artesunate, AS),

heightened conditions of oxidative stress of RBCs, and exposure to a proteasome

inhibitor (Bortezomib; BTZ) to investigate the possible relationship between HS-

response and artemisinin MOA, as well as Oxidative-Screens (Fig. 5A, Table S5, Fig.

S2A, Methods) . We found that HS-Sensitive mutants tended to be sensitive to both

artemisinin derivatives and H_2O_2-induced oxidative stress, while HS-Tolerant mutants

were less sensitive to either condition (Fig. 5A). Also, HS-Sensitive mutants shared an

increased sensitivity to the proteasome inhibitor BTZ, consistent with laboratory

observations connecting artemisinin MOA to the proteasome and clinical data that

proteasome-inhibitors act synergistically with artemisinins [8, 19, 20, 21]. Overall, correlation

of mutant phenotypic profiles across screens varied, with 16-45% having correlating

phenotypes in at least one additional screen (Fig. 5B, Fig. S2B).

We next assessed whether these laboratory-based experimental findings corresponded

to 'real world' changes associated with *P. falciparum* in artemisinin-resistant (ART-R)

clinical isolates [10]. Consistent with our laboratory findings linking HS-sensitivity and

ART-sensitivity, we found that genes mRNA levels of HS-Sensitive genes are

significantly positively correlated with parasite clearance half-life under treatment with

artemisinin-based combination therapies in recent field-isolates compared with HS-

Tolerant genes[10] (Fig. 5C, Tables S2 and S6). We also compared genes by HS-

response expression category to mRNA expression levels in these field isolates, finding

that genes upregulated in response to heat stress are significantly positively correlated

with parasite clearance half-life, while genes downregulated in response to heat stress

are more likely to be negatively correlated (Fig 5D, Tables S3 and S6). Therefore, we

conclude the parasite's responses to heat shock mirror the responses to artemisinin as

both are similar types of cellular stress on the parasite. Both of these stressors induce

unfolded protein responses, which include both upregulation and down regulation of

metabolic activities that enable the parasite to tolerate the toxic effects of accumulating

damaged proteins. The upregulated processes include the proteasome core and

chaperones to degrade or refold damaged proteins, while many other aspects of

metabolism, including growth-related anabolic processes, are down regulated to prevent

build-up of new proteins that may be damaged.

Artemisinin is activated by degradation of host hemoglobin. Recent evidence has

suggested two key, temporally-distinct ART-R mechanisms: (1) a multi-functional protein

long associated with resistance in field-isolates, *kelch13* (K13) confers resistance

upstream of hemoglobin degradation by modulating an associated endocytosis pathway;

and (2) downstream of hemoglobin degradation through the ubiquitin-proteasome

system (UPS), where K13 may function as or regulate a ubiquitin ligase [10, 11, 12, 22, 23, 24, 25].

In upstream-resistance, endocytotic transport of hemoglobin to the digestive vacuole

(DV) is down-regulated as this is the key process through which the parasite ingests,

degrades, and then releases hemoglobin. K13 mutant-isolates appear to downregulate

processes along this endocytosis pathway, decreasing parasite hemoglobin digestion

and release of heme to activate artemisinin, thereby increasing parasite survival. We

found that K13-defined endocytosis is also downregulated in response to HS (Fig. 5E).

As the K13-mediated endocytosis pathway culminates in host haemoglobin-cargo being

degraded in the DV, we further assessed our 1k HS-screen for DV-associated proteins.

We found DV-associated proteins did tend to be sensitive to heat-shock, including key

DV resident-proteases (Plasmepsin I, M1-family alanyl aminopeptidase; Fig. S3A) [26]. We

next evaluated our 1K-library HS-Screen for direct K13-interacting partner-proteins

recently identified via immunoprecipitation [25], and found that mutants in 10 of the 24

unique putative K13-partner-proteins represented in the screen were sensitive to HS.

Further, 5 of 7 known alkylation-targets of artemisinin represented in our screen had

sensitivity to HS [9, 26] (Fig. S3B). We noted significant overlap in each of these categories

of ART MOA-related genes and isoprenoid biosynthesis-related genes (Fig. S3C).

In a second downstream step post-activation of artemisinin, the parasite engages the

UPS to further mitigate artemisinin-induced damage. Artemisinins mount a multi-pronged

attack against the parasite by causing a global, non-specific accumulation of damaged

parasite proteins, which are then polyubiquitinated/marked for degradation, while also

inhibiting proteasome-function. These poly-ubiquitinated proteins ultimately overwhelm

the parasite's decreased capacity for UPS-mediated protein-degradation [8]. Key

ubiquitinating components of this system, including E2/E3 ligases and K13, are

downregulated in response to HS, while key components of the UPR and protein folding

are increased (Fig. 5E). In contrast, components of the core proteasome were

universally increased in response to HS when considered in aggregate, although the

change did not meet our fold-change criteria for being HS-regulated (Fig. S4A).

Synthesizing these data, we present a model for the relationship between what is

currently understood of artemisinin MOA and HS-response (Fig. 5F). The canonical

parasite-response to fever is to increase protein-folding and UPR while inhibiting

ubiquitination to prevent accumulation of toxic, polyubiquitinated protein-aggregates. The

parasite simultaneously increases its capacity for proteasome-mediated degradation—

ultimately enabling it to resolve HS-instigated stress and thus survive febrile

temperatures (Fig. S4B). As heat-stress is also injurious to the host RBC, the parasite

diverts resources to stabilize the host cell—increasing export and trafficking of proteins

involved in host-cell remodeling that support fortification of the host-cell membrane, as

well as decreasing uptake of host-cell hemoglobin through the K13-mediated

endocytosis pathway—processes which are ultimately driven by prenylation downstream

of apicoplast isoprenoid biosynthesis. Artemisinins kill by overwhelming these same

pathways: damaging and unfolding proteins, preventing folding of newly synthesized

proteins and inhibiting the proteasome, while at the same time activating ubiquitination-

machinery to ensure the accumulation of toxic polyubiquitinated proteins that eventually

cause cell-death. ART-R-associated mutations allow the parasite to constitutively

activate unfolded-protein response mechanisms which increase its capacity for refolding

or degrading those toxic proteins [27]. The overall increase in damaged-protein

degradation-capacity allows ART-R parasites to keep up with the influx of artemisinin-

induced protein-damage, clearing the waste and enabling parasite survival. This direct

inverse relationship in activation of endocytosis, the ubiquitin-proteasome system and

other pathways underlying DHA-mediated killing and febrile-temperature survival,

supports a shared mechanism for artemisinin-resistance and HS-response, suggesting

that ART-R parasites evolved to harness canonical HS-survival mechanisms to survive

artemisinin.

Discussion

Our data indicate that the parasite crisis-response to HS is multi-faceted to relieve the

build-up of heat-damaged proteins before it is overwhelmed by toxic, misfolded-protein

aggregates. Responding to or perhaps preventing a build-up of potentially toxic heat-

damaged proteins, the parasite upregulates expression of chaperones to stabilize and

detoxify them, downregulating ubiquitinating enzymes to discourage their aggregation

while upregulating the core proteasome and vesicular trafficking to degrade and

eliminate proteins which can't be repaired. Equally important in the survival-response are

changes in redox homeostasis, lipid metabolism, cellular transport, and metabolic

processes associated with the endosymbiont-derived organelles. The parasite requires

increased energy to mount this febrile response, which it provides by redirecting its own

internal biosynthetic pathways to produce glucose. Interestingly, we confirm the

parasite's protective response-mechanisms include proteins exported into the

erythrocyte, suggesting that the parasite's metabolic processes exported to remodelled

cytoplasm of the parasitized host cell are equally vulnerable and vital to malaria parasite

survival.

The apicoplast genes have a higher proportion of up-regulated genes in HS and tend to

be essential under normal growth situation. (Fig. 4A,B). The apicoplast isoprenoid

biosynthesis pathway's critical involvement in survival of febrile temperatures is

nevertheless a surprise, as it has not been implicated before in the *Plasmodium* HS-

response. Isoprenoids are required for myriad functions across the tree of life—plant

chloroplasts, algae, some parasitic-protozoa and bacterial pathogens utilize a

specialized form of this pathway absent from all metazoans (also called the MEP or

DOXP non-mevalonate pathway), which has made isoprenoid biosynthesis an attractive

target for intervention against a range of pathogens [28, 29]. Most studied organisms make

wide use of protein-prenylation and have large prenylated proteomes; malaria parasites,

in contrast, have a very small prenylated blood-stage proteome (~20 proteins) consisting

primarily of vesicular trafficking proteins, notably the Rab-family GTPases [17, 18]. Recent

studies indicate the key essential function of isoprenoids in the parasite blood-stage is in

their roles as substrate for protein-prenylation—specifically, in prenylating proteins

driving vesicular transport to the digestive vacuole [30, 31]. In the absence of prenylation,

Rab5 trafficking is disrupted, which leads to digestive vacuole-destabilization and

parasite death [31]. Notably, artemisinin also disrupts digestive vacuole-morphology,

resulting in a very similar phenotype as a consequence of its activation via hemoglobin

digestion [32, 33]. Intriguingly, recent data confirm the association of key resistance-

mediator K13 with Rab-GTPases [25], adding to the repertoire of proteins comprising K13-

mediated endocytic vesicles, and by extension supporting the role of prenylation in K13-

mediated processes associated with ART MOA.

Another key parasite-defense against oxidative stress induced by pro-oxidant

compounds (such as artemisinin) includes increased vitamin E biosynthesis—another

exclusive function of the MEP isoprenoid-biosynthesis pathway, whose stress-related

regulation has been extensively studied in plants [34, 35]. Further insights to the role

isoprenoids play in the HS-response may be gleaned from plants and pathogenic

bacteria, where research suggests key branchpoint-enzyme DXS, which catalyzes the

first and rate-determining step of the MEP pathway [36] has a role in sensing and then

facilitating adaptation to ever-changing environmental conditions, including temperature,

light-exposure, chemical compounds, and oxidative stress (for example [37, 38]). Elevated

levels of isoprenoids have been found to correlate with plant exposure to drought and

other stressors and are considered a key component of plant-defenses against abiotic

stress [39]. The DXS ortholog may play a similar role in *P. falciparum*, enabling the

parasite to mount quick responses to unfavorable conditions in the host-environment,

such as fever.

Interestingly, concurrent studies now provide mechanistic insights illuminating the

biochemical relationship between apicoplast isoprenoid biosynthesis and the parasite

febrile-temperature survival response[40]. Farnesylation of HSP40 (PF3D7_1437900), a

type of prenylation mediated by the MEP pathway, is critical for *P. falciparum* survival of

thermal stress. In this study Inhibition of isoprenoid biosynthesis ultimately resulted in

reduced association of HSP40 with critical components of the cytoskeleton, protein-

export, and vesicular transport pathways—without which *P. falciparum* could survive

neither heat nor cold stress. Suppression of these cellular processes by loss of HSP40-

farnesylation directly corresponds to HS-sensitive pathways identified via both our

forward-genetic screen and our gene-expression analyses of the HS-Sensitive LRR5-

and DHC4-mutant clones.

Few eukaryotes are known to be able to thrive in extreme-heat environments; most are

unable to complete their lifecycles above 40°C [41]. The survival mechanism of malaria

parasites could be attributed to the algal ancestral lineage of the apicoplast. Some

extant red algal-lineages (genus *Cyanidioschyzon*) are extremophilic inhabitants of

acidic hot-springs and are remarkably resistant to heat shock up to 63°C; green-algae

Chlamydamonas reinhardtii was also able to survive to 42°C [42]. Responsibility for this

extreme resistance to transient exposure to high temperatures was attributed to two

genes of the small heat shock protein (sHSP) family (CMJ100C and CMJ101C). The *P.*

falciparum ortholog for these genes (PF3D7_1304500) was upregulated in the wildtype

HS-response and dysregulated in both our HS-Sensitive mutants, indicating its

contribution to parasite survival in extreme temperatures. Mutations in this gene were

not represented in our pooled screens.

It is tempting to speculate that presence of the endosymbiont cynobacterium-related

ancestral genes and its associated plant stress-response mechanisms is what enabled

the ancestral parasite to survive host-fever, likely an important and early step leading to

successful infection of hominid hosts. Our findings of significant overlap between

parasite-responses to three disparate stressors (HS, artemisinin, oxidative stress) offers

new insight into how *P. falciparum* exhibited artemisinin-resistance even in the initial

clinical trials [43], and then further evolved resistance relatively quickly after mass-

introduction of the drug by "hijacking" and repurposing the parasite's in-built fever-

response pathways.

Conclusion

Deeper knowledge of parasite biology is expected to enable more effective and likely

longer-lasting antimalarial interventions. Similarly, a better mechanistic understanding of

artemisinin MOA will lead to better combination therapies to combat emerging

resistance. With this first large-scale forward-genetic screen in *P. falciparum*, we

revealed the parasite's survival responses to malarial fever and artemisinin

chemotherapy share common underpinnings that heavily depend on metabolic

processes of plant origin.

ART-R ultimately hinges on highly efficient protein-degradation mechanisms. This

mechanistic knowledge allows for the application of intelligently considered counters to

ART-R, such as combinatorial therapy with proteasome-inhibitors, which has

experimentally shown great promise [44]. Our current study highlights the potential of

forward-genetic screens to elucidate unexpected processes and pathways, such as

DOXP and isoprenoid biosynthesis, that are associated with the artemisinin MOA which

may serve as synergistic druggable targets [45]. Future studies can exploit a genome-wide

screening approach to iteratively ascribe function to every part of the malaria-parasite

genome to support targeted development of new, more-efficacious antimalarial

combination therapies to limit and potentially reverse artemisinin resistance.

Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate

Not applicable.

Consent for publication

Not applicable.

Availability of data and materials

The raw RNAseq dataset supporting the conclusions of this article are available in the

Mendeley Data repository *Malaria-parasite survival of host fever is linked to artemisinin*

resistance, http://dx.doi.org/10.17632/b8g3wbnd5v.1 [46]. Raw QIseq dataset accession

numbers are listed in Table S5.

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

Funding

This work was supported by the National Institutes of Health grant R01 AI094973 and

R01 AI117017 (J.H.A.) and the Wellcome Trust grant 098051 (J.C.R.).

Authors' contributions

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and R.H.Y.J.; Supervision, M.Z., J.O., T.D.O., J.C.R., M.T.F., R.H.Y.J., and J.H.A.;

Project Administration, M.Z.; Funding Acquisition, J.C.R. and J.H.A.

Acknowledgements

We appreciate the Wellcome Sanger Institute (United Kingdom) for performing QIseq

and Xiangyun Liao, Suzanne Li, and Kenneth Udenze for support of parasite cell culture.

We thank the USF Genomics Program Omics Hub for productive discussion.

FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. Pooled screens of *P. falciparum piggyBac* mutants allow robust

identification of heat-shock phenotypes. A. Experimental design for pooled heat

shock (HS) phenotypic screens. The pilot-library of *pB*-mutant clones (n=128) was

exposed to three rounds of temperature-cycling (41°C for 8 hours) to simulate malarial

fever (Methods, Pooled-screen assay-design). A pilot-library control concurrently grown

continuously at 37°C established inherent growth of each *pB* mutant. HS screens of the

pilot-library were conducted in biological duplicate and technical triplicate and were

highly correlated, indicating high accuracy and reproducibility (See Fig. S5A; Methods,

Pooled-screen assay-design, HS-Screen).

B. QIseq quantifies each *pB*-mutant in the pilot-library from sequence-reads of the 5′ and

3′ ends of each *pB* insertion-site. Colored lines represent genes. Black boxes indicate

transposon location (Fig. S5B; Methods, QIseq).

C. Pilot-library mutant growth-phenotypes at ideal temperatures, defined as fold change

in QIseq reads-count after three cycles growth at 37°C (FC-Growth; Methods) ranked

from Sensitive to Tolerant. Mutants with inherently slower or faster growth under ideal

conditions are shown in grey and blue, respectively.

D. Pilot-library mutant HS-phenotypes ordered from Sensitive (red) to Tolerant (green).

Mutant growth was defined as QIseq reads-count fold-change in response to HS (FC-

HS) vs. non heat-shocked control (Methods). HS-Sensitive mutants have lower FC-HS

(red, FC-HS < 1), while HS-Tolerant mutants have higher FC-HS (green, FC-HS > 1).

E. HS- and Growth-phenotypes of the pilot-library mutants. HS-phenotype of each

mutant (displayed as line-graph) is superimposed on its corresponding Growth-

phenotype (bar graph). *Known HS-Sensitive and **HS-Tolerant pB-mutant clones

served as benchmarks in the pilot-library HS-Screen for identifying sensitive/tolerant

mutants [15].

F. Phenotype-comparison between mutants characterized in both individual HS-assays[15]

and pooled HS-screening (n = 20). Mutant clones without an observed phenotype in

individual HS-assay as determined by above-average growth via flow cytometry (green)

also had significantly higher Phenotypic Fitness Scores in response to HS (PFS$_{HS}$) in

pooled screening, while mutant clones characterized as HS-Sensitive in individual

assays (red) also had significantly lower PFS$_{HS}$ in pooled screening. (** p-value < 0.01,

Mann-Whitney U test),

G. Mutant heat-shock phenotype classifications. Red = HS-Sensitive mutants (FC-HS <

0.5 and PFS$_{HS}$ < 0.25, n = 28). Yellow = mutants classified as both Growth-Sensitive and

HS-Sensitive (FC-HS < 0.5, PFS$_{HS}$ > 0.25, n = 14). Green = HS-Tolerant mutants (FC-

HS > 1.5, n = 30). Mutants neither Sensitive nor Tolerant to HS were classified as HS-

Neutral (n = 49) (Methods) .

H. Distributions of PFS$_{HS}$ for mutant HS-phenotype classifications. HS-Sensitive mutants

are assigned the lowest PFS$_{HS}$, while HS-Tolerant mutations are assigned the highest

PFS$_{HS}$ (**** Wilcoxon-test p-value < 1e-15).

Figure 2. Large-scale pooled phenotypic screens enable identification of

processes driving the *P. falciparum* heat-shock response.

A. HS-Sensitive mutations identified in pooled screens of 1K-library of 922 *pB*-mutants

(Table S2). The uncloned, large mixed-population pools comprising the 1K-library (n =

10) were parallely screened in both ideal growth conditions and under HS, and mutants

were assigned phenotypes as per methods established in the pilot-library screens (Fig.

1, Table S1, Methods). Mutants are ranked by fold-change in response to HS from HS-

Sensitive (red; n = 149, FC-HS < 0.5 and PFS$_{HS}$ < 0.25) to HS-Tolerant (green; n = 139,

FC-HS > 1.5). Mean mutant fold-change in ideal growth (FC-Growth) is superimposed as

a bar plot (gray, FC-Growth < 1.0; blue, FC-Growth > 1.0). Mutants performing poorly in

both screens (yellow; n = 91, FC-HS < 0.5, PFS$_{HS}$ > 0.25) were classified as HS- and

Growth-Sensitive and were not considered further. Mutations neither HS-Sensitive nor

HS-Tolerant were classified as HS-Neutral (taupe, n = 543). The distribution patterns

between intergenic regions and CDS is almost equal comparison of pilot-library and 1K-

library that demonstrate the random nature of the *pB*-mutant library (Fig. S6A-C). We

checked reproducibility and validate the performance of the 1K- library by comparing

correlation of the *pB*-mutants that appeared multiple times (i.e., at least twice) in different

pools (Fig. S7A-B). In addition to the HS-Sensitive mutant PB4 (DHA, dynein,

PF3D7_1122900) from the pilot library, we identified three HS-Sensitive dynein mutants

in the 1K-library (two different mutants of DHA_12, PF3D7_1202300; one mutant of

DHA_10, PF3D7_1023100), indicating the robusticity of the 1K-library screen (Fig. S8A-

B). Distributions of PFS$_{HS}$ for mutant HS-phenotype classifications are provided in Fig.

S9.

B. Functional enrichment of GO terms for HS-Sensitive or Growth-Sensitive *pB*-mutants

vs all other mutants in the 1K-library. HS-Sensitive mutants were enriched in terms

associated with HS-response such as protein-folding, response to DNA-damage, DNA-

repair, and regulation of vesicle-mediated transport. Growth-Sensitive mutants tended to

be enriched for more general categories broadly important for survival in all conditions,

such as translation- or mRNA-metabolism-related terms. Circles represent GO category,

circle color represents ontology, and circle size represents number of significant genes

annotated to that category. Significant terms (Fisher/elim-hybrid test p. value <= 0.05)

fall within the light-green box.

Figure 3. Unfolded protein response, apicoplast-targeted and mitochondria-

targeted stress-response pathways are critically dysregulated in functionally

unrelated HS-Sensitive mutant clones.

A. Genes were classified based on their NF54-expression with and without HS-exposure

across all three parasite lines (Table S3, Methods). Genes identified as differentially

expressed in response to febrile temperatures vs. 37°C were classified into three

different categories based on direction of response in the wildtype parasite NF54:

upregulated in response to HS (FC-HS > 1 and FDR < 0.1; ↑ n=415), down-regulated in

response to HS (FC-HS < -0.5 and FDR < 0.1;↓ n=611), or not regulated by HS (-0.5 <

FC-HS < 1; – n=1541), with upregulated genes considered to be driving the HS-

response. Genes expressed above threshold in NF54 and both HS-Sensitive mutants (n

= 1298) were then assigned into six HS expression-categories based on phenotype in

NF54 vs. mutants *ΔLRR5* and *ΔDHC*. HS-regulated genes shared between NF54 and

both mutants are indicated in red (↑↑↑, n = 94) or blue (↓↓↓, n = 205) for up- and down-

regulated genes, respectively. Genes dysregulated in one or both HS-Sensitive mutants

fell into two main expression-profile categories underlying mutant HS-Sensitivity

phenotypes: those upregulated in NF54 that failed to be regulated in the mutants (↑⤫⤫, n

= 83), and genes not regulated in response to HS in NF54 that were inappropriately

upregulated in the mutants (– ↑↑, n=74). Most remaining genes were not regulated in

response to HS in any parasite line (n = 615).

B. Functional enrichment analyses between wildtype/mutant HS-expression profiles as

defined in A. Red: Shared upregulated HS-responsive GO-terms between NF54 and the

two HS-Sensitive *pB*-mutants (↑↑↑). Blue: Shared down-regulated HS-responsive GO-

terms (↓↓↓). Ochre: GO-terms upregulated in NF54 but dysregulated in the two *pB*-

mutant (↑⤫⤫). Tan: GO-terms enriched in genes not regulated in the wildtype HS-

response but upregulated in the mutants (– ↑↑). Only enriched GO-terms are shown

(Fisher/elim-hybrid test p. value <= 0.05), with highest significance indicated in dark

green. Fraction of significant genes mapping to a GO-term in an HS expression-profile

category vs. genes mapping to that GO-term in the entire analysis is indicated by

distance to the center of the circle, with the outermost position on the circle indicating

100% of genes in that GO-term are significant. See Table S3D.

C. Several apicoplast and isoprenoid biosynthesis-related genes have a tendency to be

upregulated in the wildtype-response to HS and are dysregulated in one or both HS-

Sensitive *pB*-mutant clones (↑✕✕). * Isoprenoid biosynthesis-related genes upregulated

by HS confirmed in the pooled HS-Screen.

Figure 4. Apicoplast isoprenoid biosynthesis is critical for *P. falciparum* survival

of febrile temperatures. A. Apicoplast-targeted genes tend to be increased in response

to HS as compared to all non apicoplast-targeted genes detected above threshold in

RNAseq. Apicoplast-targeted genes are as defined in [47] (*** Fisher-test p-value < 1e-5,

39 up- vs.12 down-regulated genes, compared with whole genome 415 up- vs. 611

down-regulated genes, Fisher test p< 1e-5, Table S4A-B).

B. Apicoplast-targeted genes tend to be highly essential during blood-stage vs. all other

non-apicoplast-targeted genes detected above threshold in RNAseq. The lower

Mutagenesis Index Score (MIS) represents higher essentiality [6], the median MIS for

apicoplast-targeted genes is much lower than median MIS for all other genes, indicating

a lower tolerance for disruption and thus higher likely essentiality during blood-stage

development than non-apicoplast-targeted genes (**** Wilcoxon-test p-value < 1e-15).

C. Apicoplast pathways regulated in response to HS. GO categories enriched in up- and

down-regulated apicoplast genes are shown on a scale from red to blue, respectively.

The horizontal direction indicates the log ratio between up- and down-regulated

apicoplast genes in each category. Circle-size represents gene-number per category.

D. All nine *pB*-mutants in genes related to apicoplast isoprenoid biosynthesis

represented in the 1K-library pooled screen were HS-Sensitive. Mutants are ranked by

phenotype from HS-Sensitive (red) to HS-Tolerant (green). Circles indicate each HS-

Sensitive mutant related to isoprenoid-biosynthesis. *The three isoprenoid biosynthesis-

genes we identified as directly upregulated in response to HS via RNAseq (DXS,

PF3D7_1337200; tRNA m(1)G methyltransferase, PF3D7_1119100; apicoplast RNA

methyltransferase, PF3D7_0218300). See Table S3.

E. Key enzymes in the *P. falciparum* isoprenoid biosynthesis-pathway are up-regulated

in response to heat-shock (red circle), dysregulated in HS-Sensitive mutants (ochre) and

absent in malaria-parasites of hosts that do not present fever. Pathway diagram

modeled from [48]. Isoprenoid biosynthesis-genes upregulated in HS include DXS, 2-C-

methyl-D-erythritol 2,4-cyclodiphosphate synthase (IspF, PF3D7_0209300), pyruvate

kinase II (PyKII, PF3D7_1037100), phosphoenolpyruvate/phosphate translocator (PPT,

PF3D7_0530200), triosephosphate isomerase (TIM, PF3D7_1439900), triose phosphate

transporter (TPT, PF3D7_1218400), and upstream-regulator of MEP-pathway substrates

HAD1-phosphotase (HAD1, PF3D7_1033400) [49]. All direct downstream-targets

prenylated by bifunctional farnesyl/geranylgeranyl diphosphate synthase

(FPPS/GGPPS, PF3D7_1128400) with products of the MEP-pathway (zigzag)

represented in pooled screening were HS-Sensitive, including the Rab-family vesicular

trafficking-proteins (Rab5c, PF3D7_0106800; Rab7, PF3D7_0903200; Rab11b,

PF3D7_1340700), as were several digestive vacuole proteases and proteins involved in

hemoglobin digestion (PM1, PF3D7_1407900; ATCase, PF3D7_1344800; M1AAP,

PF3D7_1311800; LAP, PF3D7_1446200; HSP70, PF3D7_0818900). The key thiamin-

synthesis enzyme hydroxyethylthiazole kinase (ThzK, PF3D7_1239600) is absent in *P.*

berghei and *P. yoelii*, malaria-parasites whose rodent-hosts do not present fever.

F. *P. falciparum* genes with plant orthologs (green circles) indicating potential

endosymbiont-ancestry tend to be increased in response to HS vs. genes that do not

have plant orthologs (grey circles). *P. falciparum* genes with potential endosymbiont-

ancestry were derived from 1919 ortholog-pairs between *Arabidopsis thaliana* and *P.*

falciparum (data from OrthoMCLv5.0). The listed processes are sorted based on the

ratio of "green" to "non-green" orthologs.

Figure 5. Increased sensitivity to fever is directly correlated with increased

sensitivity to artemisinin in the malaria parasite. A. HS-Sensitive *pB*-mutants (red)

are more sensitive to multiple concentrations of artemisinin derivatives Artesunate (AS)

and Dihydroartemisinin (DHA), proteasome-inhibitor Bortezomib (BTZ), and conditions of

heightened oxidative stress than HS-tolerant parasites (green) in all pooled screens of

the pilot library. HS-Sensitive mutants tended to be sensitive to both artemisinin

derivatives and H_2O_2-induced oxidative stress, while HS-Tolerant mutants were less

sensitive to either condition. Also, HS-Sensitive mutants shared an increased sensitivity

to the proteasome inhibitor BTZ (Table S5, Fig. S2, Methods). *pB*-mutants were cultured

continuously under oxidative stress-inducing conditions for three to six cycles (T1 and

T2, respectively). Samples were collected from all parallel phenotype-screens of the

pilot-library in biological duplicate. Biological replicates were highly correlated for each

screen (Pearson correlation > 0.94; Fig. S2 and S10). Mutants in apicoplast-targeted

genes (n = 5) have phenotypes similar to all HS-Sensitive mutants (n =28) in artemisinin-

derivative screens, but not to protein-inhibitors or oxidative stress (* Wilcoxon p < 0.05;

*** Wilcoxon p < 1e-10. See Methods).

B. Correlation between mutant phenotypes in all pooled screens of the pilot library.

Mutants performing in the bottom 25% or top 25% of each screen were classified as

having "Sensitive" and "Tolerant" phenotypes, respectively. Mutant classifications were

compared pair-wise between each screen, with mutants falling into the same category in

both screens considered to have correlating phenotypes.

C. Compared with HS-Tolerant genes, the mRNA levels of HS-Sensitive genes are

significantly positively correlated with parasite clearance half-life under artemisinin-

based combination therapy (ACT) in field-isolates[10]. The red violin plot indicates 29 HS-

Sensitive *pB*-mutants, while the green violin plot represents 16 HS-Tolerant mutants (*

Wilcoxon p-value < 0.05).

D. Under HS stress, genes classified as up-regulated in response to heat-stress are

significantly positively correlated with parasite clearance half-life under artemisinin-

based combination therapy (ACT) in field-isolates[10]. Down-regulated genes are more

likely to be negative correlated with parasite clearance half-life. The red violin plot

indicates 67 genes upregulated in WT during HS, while 114 genes are down-regulated

(** Wilcoxon p-value < 1e-3).

E. Both K13-mediated mechanisms of artemisinin resistance (endocytosis, ubiquitin-

proteasome system) are similarly regulated in HS. The K13-defined endocytosis

pathway (shades of green) and key ubiquitinating-enzymes of the ubiquitin-proteasome

system, E2/E3 and K13, are downregulated in the wildtype NF54 HS-response, while

protein folding, stress, exported proteins, and proteasome genes are upregulated.

RNAseq data are plotted for each gene by average log2 fold-change in response to

HS and significance (–log2(p-value)). Circles in shades of blue and pink indicate genes

significantly down- or upregulated after exposure to HS, respectively.

F. Proposed model integrating key pathways underlying the parasite survival of host

fever-response and artemisinin resistance identified via pooled phenotypic screening.

Direction of regulation in response to HS is informed by comparative RNAseq data

where available (pink = increased; blue = decreased). Pathways/proteins previously

identified as interacting with K13 are indicated (green triangle). See Tables S4C-D for

data and additional supporting references.

Methods

Pilot-library of pB-mutant clones characteristics and validation

The single *piggyBac*-transposon insertion sites of each *pB*-mutant-clone in the pilot-

library were verified as previously described [13, 14], published data showed that growth

rates of individual *pB*-mutant clones were highly reproducible between biological

replicates, and even between pools with different compositions. All of those 128

extensively characterized *P. falciparum pB*-mutant clones in the pilot-library were

repeatedly confirmed in subsequent growth screens in 12 asexual intra-erythrocytic

development cycles (24 days), bio-rep samples were collected in subsequent cycles at

3, 6, 9 and 12. Additionally, whole-genome sequencing performed on 23% of 128 *pB*-

mutant-clones in the pilot-library verified that no major genomic changes occurred aside

from the *piggyBac* insertion, ensuring any detected phenotypes are attributable to the

single disruption [15]. The pilot-library was generated in a manner to ensure approximately

equal representation of each of the 128 clones at thaw [13].

Generating the pilot-library of pB-*mutant parasite clones*

The pilot-library was built as described in our previous QIseq methods-development

study [13] and data are available in PlasmoDB (RRID:SCR_013331). Aliquots of the pilot-

library were generated by first growing each of the 128 extensively-characterized

mutant-clones individually in T25-flasks to 1-2% parasitemia. All clones were then

combined equally into one large flask and gently mixed. One-hundred equal-volume

aliquots of the pilot-library were then cryopreserved according to standard methods,

providing enough biological-replicate samples for use in the parallel phenotype screens

of the pilot-library.

Pooled-screen assay-design

HS-screens

The pooled phenotypic screen-design pipeline has three important steps to ensure

quality-control and scalability: 1) protocols are tested using individual *pB*-mutant clones;

2) methods are adapted for pooled-screening using the well-characterized pilot-library;

3) methods developed using the pilot-library are applied to 1K-library screens (Fig. S1).

We exposed pools of *pB*-mutant parasites to three rounds of temperature-cycling to

simulate the cyclical pattern of fever characteristic of human malaria (Figure 1A).

Parasites under phenotypic selection (heat-shock) and ideal-growth controls originated

from the same thaw, grown at 37°C for one cycle then split equally into five flasks (three

flasks A, B and C for exposure to heat-shock, samples were harvested from these three

flasks at same time as three technical-replicates for HS-Screens; two flasks C and D for

the ideal-growth controls). Experimental and control-flasks were maintained in parallel to

minimize potential batch-effects. Parasites were grown for one cycle at 37°C until they

reached the ring-stage of development (Time-point 0; T^0), at which point the

experimental-group were exposed to febrile temperatures (41°C) for 8 hours. Post-heat-

shocked parasites were then returned to 37°C for the remainder of the 48-hour window

until they again reached ring-stage. Parasite-gDNA was harvested for QIseq after two

more rounds of temperature-cycling in successive growth cycles to ensure enough

parasite-material was available for QIseq (Time-point 1; T^1). Control-parasites were

harvested for gDNA before and after three cycles of pooled growth at 37°C (T^0 and T^1,

respectively) for quantification via QIseq in technical triplicate. We used QIseq-reads

obtained for each mutant after the same number of cycles of pooled growth at 37°C as

our T^0 control as previously reported [13]. Pilot-library screens were performed in biological

duplicate. As the 1K-library consists of multiple randomly selected, unclosed, large

mixed-population pools and direct biological replication is not feasible, we leveraged

insertions duplicated across pools as internal controls. FC-HS for 15 insertion-sites

represented in at least two different pools of the 1K library allowed evaluation of

consistency across pools. FC-HS was highly correlated between duplicate insertion-sites

regardless of the pool in which they were screened (Pearson correlation = 0.806; Fig.

S7A-B). We further evaluated reproducibility between the pilot library and the 1K library

using mutants in genes represented in both the pilot library and the 1K-library (n = 16

genes; max distance between pilot-library and 1K-library insertion < 1 kb). FC-HS was

again highly correlated across pools (Fig. S8A-B, Pearson correlation = 0.702).

Drug-screens

As with the HS-screen, parasites were split from the same thaw of the pilot-library after

one cycle of growth into experimental flasks and control-flasks. Experimental flasks were

exposed to three cycles of continuous drug-pressure at two different concentrations

(IC10, IC25) of each artemisinin-compound (AS, DHA). Proteasome-inhibitor BTZ-

experiments were performed at IC10. Control-flasks were cultured continuously in

parallel at 37°C without drug. Parasites were harvested immediately at the conclusion of

three growth-cycles for gDNA-extraction and phenotype-analysis via QIseq.

Oxidative stress screens

Parasites were split after one cycle of growth from the same thaw of the pilot-library as

the HS-screen. Parasites were grown one more cycle, then split into four flasks: two

control-flasks to be cultured with standard, washed human red blood-cells (hRBC), and

two experimental flasks to be cultured with H_2O_2-treated hRBCs to mimic conditions of

oxidative stress. Experimental flasks (H_2O_2 treated-hRBC) and control-flasks (untreated-

hRBC) were cultured continuously in parallel at 37°C. Parasites were harvested

immediately after three growth-cycles (T1), then again after an additional three growth-

cycles (T2) for gDNA-extraction and phenotype-analysis by QIseq.

Methods for oxidative pre-treatment of hRBCs were as published previously [50]. Briefly,

O+ hRBCs (Interstate blood bank, packed, 100% hematocrit) were incubated with 1 mM

H_2O_2 (Sigma-aldrich, Cat. no. H1009-100ML) for one hour at room temperature. After

treatment, cells were washed three times with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) before

dithiothreitol (DTT) was added to a final concentration of 1 mM to heal any reversible

oxidative damages. Cells were then treated with menadione sodium bisulphite for one

hour at room temperature (Sigma-aldrich Cat. no. M5750-100G) and washed five times.

A volume of 3–4 ml of AB medium (RPMI 1640 medium supplemented with 2 mM L-

glutamine, 25 mM HEPES, 100 µM hypoxanthine and 20 µg ml^{-1} gentamicin) was added

on top of the cell-pellet after discarding the final wash. Pre-treated erythrocytes were

stored at 4 °C before use in parasite culture.

All pooled phenotypic screens of pilot-library (AS, DHA, BTZ, oxidative stress, ideal

growth) were performed in biological duplicate (Fig. S10).

QIseq

QIseq, which uses Illumina next-gen sequencing technology and custom library-

preparation to enable sequencing from both the 5' and 3' ends of the *piggyBac*

transposon out into the disrupted genome-sequence, allows quantitative identification of

each *pB*-mutant line by its unique insertion-site within mixed-population pools of *pB*-

mutants [13] (Figure 1B). The anatomy of the *piggyBac* transposon and its distinct 5' and 3'

inverted terminal-repeat sequences (ITRs) allows double-verification of insertion-sites;

both 5' and 3' QIseq libraries were therefore generated and sequenced for each sample.

Counts per insertion-site were determined as described previously [13]. We observed high

correlation between biological replicates at 41C and 37C respectively (Pearson

correlation = 0.964 at 41C and 0.967 at 37C, Fig. S5A). We observed lower correlation

between Growth (37C) and HS (41C) assays (Fig. S5B, average Pearson correlation =

0.723), suggesting that our heat-shock exposure-conditions are sufficient to allow

reproducible detection of mutants with specific selection response-phenotypes from

pooled screening.

Calculating mutant fold-change in pooled screening to assign HS- and Growth-

phenotypes

We defined FC-Growth by *pB*-mutant fold-change after three cycles of growth at ideal

temperatures (T^{1-37C}/ T^{0-37C}). FC-HS was defined as *pB*-mutant fold-change after

exposure to heat-shock vs. the non- heat-shocked control (T^{1-41C}/ T^{1-37C}). We used

changes in reads-number detected for each *pB*-mutant in the Growth-Screen and the

HS-Screen as compared to reads-number detected for that mutant in the respective

control-screen to calculate mutant Fold Change (FC) in both screens (Figure 1C-D;

Methods). We then ranked mutants from lowest to highest FC, with lowest FC indicating

highest sensitivity to the screened-condition.

We developed a scoring-system to distinguish mutants with phenotypes specifically in

the condition under selection (HS) vs. those with inherently compromised growth in ideal

conditions, called the Phenotypic Fitness-Score (PFS). PFS_{HS} is the mutant fold-change

in response to heat-shock (FC-HS, 41C/37C) multiplied by the ratio of FC-HS to mutant

fold-change under ideal growth-conditions (FC-HS/FC-Growth), with the smallest and

largest values indicating the largest mutant growth-differentials between the two screens

(smallest PFS_{HS} indicating worse mutant-fitness in the HS-Screen than the Growth-

Screen, and largest PFS_{HS} indicating better mutant-fitness in the HS-Screen than the

Growth-screen). Mutants exhibiting (1) poor growth in the HS-Screen (i.e., low FC-HS of

< 0.5 based on performance of *known HS-Sensitive *pB*-mutant-clones), and (2)

comparatively much better growth in the Growth-Screen (i.e., low PFS_{HS} of < 0.25) were

classified as HS-Sensitive in pooled phenotypic screens (indicated in red in Fig. 1E-F).

Mutants exhibiting poor fitness in both the Growth- and HS-Screens (FC-HS < 0.5 and

PFS_{HS} > 0.25) are indicated in Fig. 1E-F in yellow (n = 14). These double-sensitive

mutants were not included in our "HS-Sensitive" classification to avoid overinterpretation

of possibly-confounding phenotypes. We classified mutants displaying a slight growth

advantage in response to heat shock (FC-HS > 1.5, n = 28, indicated in the green box,

Fig.1E-F) as "HS-Tolerant". Mutants exhibiting neither sensitivity nor tolerance to heat

shock were classified as HS-Neutral (n = 49).

Assigning drug- and oxidative stress-screen phenotypes

Mutant fold-change in response to the given condition was calculated against an ideal-

growth control as above. Mutants in the top 25% of reads recovered in QIseq in the

screened condition were classified as Tolerant, while mutants in the bottom 25% were

classified as Sensitive.

Comparative RNAseq between wild-type NF54 and two HS-Sensitive mutant parasite

lines in response to heat shock

RNAseq experimental design is outlined in Fig. S11A. Briefly, highly synchronized ring-

stage cultures of wildtype NF54 and HS-Sensitive mutants *LRR5* and *DHC* were split

equally into four T75 flasks each. All parasites were grown at the normal human body

temperature (37C) to early ring-stage. Two flasks of each parasite-line were then

exposed to febrile temperatures (41C) for 8 hours, while the remaining two flasks were

allowed to continue to grow at 37C for 8 hours without exposure to heat-stress. This

temperature-cycling was repeated three times, just as we allowed for the pooled HS-

Screen. After the third round of heat-shock (Time 1, T^1), RNA was harvested

simultaneously from both conditions for RNAseq as in [19]. Parasite fold-change in

response to HS was calculated at the time of sample-collection and verified mutant

defects in response to HS as compared to NF54 (Fig S8B). RNA-seq was performed in-

house on an Illumina MiSeq using a 300-cycle V2 MiSeq reagent kit.

RNA-seq data-analysis

RNA-seq reads from each sample were aligned to the *P. falciparum* reference genome

(PlasmoDB version 28, RRID:SCR_013331). A maximum of one mismatch per read was

allowed. The mapped reads from TopHat [51] were used to assemble known transcripts

from the reference and their abundances were estimated using Cufflinks [52]. The

expression level of each gene was normalized as FPKM (fragments per kilobase of exon

per million mapped reads). We defined expressed genes as those having FPKM > 20 for

at least one biological replicate at either 37°C or 41°C. The fold change of normalized

gene expression between 41°C and 37°C was calculated for every biological replicate.

Fold-change for genes not expressed in both temperatures was set equal to one. We

conservatively filtered out genes in the top and bottom 10% of fold-change to remove

outliers. We then fit a Gaussian model to the log2 fold change (*log2FC*) for every

biological replicate using maximum log likelihood estimation to assess the fold-change

distribution The p-value is calculated as the probability of estimated gaussian distribution

higher than the observed *log2FC* (when observed *log2FC* > the expection of estimated

gaussian distribution), or lower than the observed *log2FC* (when observed *log2FC* ≤ the

expection of estimated gaussian distribution). The false discovery rate (FDR) was

calculated for each replicate. We defined genes for which FDR < 0.1 in both biological

replicates as having significant fold-change in response to HS. Genes were assigned HS

phenotype-categories based on significance and direction of HS-response. We assigned

HS phenotype-categories for 2567 genes using these criteria (Table S3). Heat-shock

phenotypes as identified via pooled phenotypic screening and comparative RNAseq

were highly correlated (Fig. S12A-B), supporting our methodology.

GO-term enrichment analyses

All GO-enrichment analyses were performed testing GO-terms mapped to genes in the

category of interest against a background of GO-terms mapped to all other genes in the

analysis. The GO-term database was created from the latest curated *P. falciparum*

ontology available at the time of analysis, downloaded from GeneDB (accessed May 2,

2019) [53]. For enrichment-analysis in the 1K-library screens: Mutants were divided into

HS-phenotype categories, and each category was tested for enrichment against a

background of GO-terms mapped to the genes represented by the remainder of the 922

mutants in the screen using the weighted Fisher/elim hybrid-method of the TopGO

package (v 1.0) available from Bioconductor [54] (Fig. 2B). For enrichment-analysis in

comparative RNAseq data: a database of all GO-terms mapped to the 1298 genes which

could be assigned a HS-phenotype in all three parasites was assembled. Genes were

divided into HS phenotype-categories based on direction of fold-change (Up, Down,

Unchanged) in response to HS in all three parasites, then evaluated for GO-term

enrichment against the background GO-term database of all other genes in the analysis

using the weighted-Fisher/elim hybrid-method of the TopGO package (Fig 3B, Table

S3B-D). For enrichment of apicoplast-targeted genes by RNAseq HS-phenotype

category: enrichment for each investigated GO-term g (The x-axis in Fig 4c, the ratio of

up to down regulated genes) was calculated as the ratio (C_r) of up- vs. down-regulated

genes mapped to GO-term g among all differential expressed apicoplast genes. This

ratio (C) was also calculated for the genes mapped to GO-term g in the whole genome

(the background distribution). The GO annotation for each gene was downloaded from

GeneDB (accessed May 2, 2019). The fraction of HS-regulated apicoplast-genes to

non-HS-regulated apicoplast genes (C_r/C) was assessed for significance using the

Fisher exact test (Fig 4C; Table S4A-B).

1009

SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURE and TABLE LEGENDS

Figure S1. Schematic overview of the phenotypic screening pipeline. *pB*-mutant

library resources from small (individual, well-characterized mutant-clones) to large (the

1K-Library, comprised of pools randomly selected from the Saturation-Library) were

used to design carefully validated pooled screens at increasingly large scale. 1) to test

the protocols using individual *pB*-mutant clones; 2) to develop pooled phenotypic screen

method using pilot-library screen; 3) then we scale-up phenotypic screen using 1K-

library; 4) parallel phenotype screens using pilot-library; 5) Transcriptional profiling via

RNAseq compare the parasite response to heat shock between the wildtype and HS-

sensitive mutants. High correlation between mutant-phenotypes in HS-screens and

ART-screens indicated mechanistic overlap in response to both stressors. Iterative

rounds of pooled-screening for various phenotypes over time enables higher-throughput

functional-annotation of the *P. falciparum* genome.

1023

Figure S2. Extended screening data against the pilot-library and summary.

A. Full drug-screening data for artemisinin-compounds AS and DHA, and proteasome-

inhibitor Bortezomib (BTZ) against the pilot-library. HS-Sensitive mutants are

significantly more sensitive to each drug than HS-Tolerant mutants. There is no

significant relationship between *pB*-mutant sensitivity to any drug and mutant sensitivity

in standard growth-conditions.

B. HS-Sensitive (red) and HS-Tolerant (green) mutants and their phenotypes across all

pooled phenotypic screens. Mutants are clustered by HS-phenotype.

1032

Figure S3. Mutants in members of the DV proteome, targets of ART alkylation, and

putative interacting partners of K13 tend to be sensitive to HS.

A. 1k HS-Screen mutants are ordered by FC-HS from HS-Sensitive to HS-Tolerant.

Mutants in digestive vacuole-associated proteins as defined by [26] are indicated in

lavender dots. Gene-symbols for mutants with HS-sensitivity are labeled with black text

(10 of 18 genes). Gene-symbols for HS-Neutral and HS-Tolerant mutants are labeled

with grey text.

B. All mutants in ART alkylation-targets as defined by [9] included in the 1K HS-Screen.

C. HS-screen phenotypes of mutants in putative K13-interacting proteins as defined by

[25].

1043

Figure S4. A. Core proteasome-components are slightly but universally

upregulated in response to HS as compared to other aggregately upregulated

processes which have more heterogenous expression. Fold-change for most individual

proteasome-components did not meet our threshold to be designated "upregulated". **

Wilcoxon p-value < 1e-5.

B. Activation of pathways underlying DHA-mediated killing and febrile-

temperature survival is directly inverse. Top. Model of DHA-mediated killing in *P.*

falciparum adapted from [8]. Artemisinin (ART) damages and unfolds proteins, prevents

folding of newly synthesized proteins, and inhibits the proteasome while at the same

time activating E1/E2/E3 ubiquitin-machinery. Accumulation of toxic polyubiquitinated

protein-substrates (S) overwhelms the cell and leads to death. **Bottom**. Model of

parasite fever-response. Heat-stress causes globally damaged protein. The

parasite increases the UPR as it inhibits E2/E3 ubiquitination to prevent accumulation of

toxic, polyubiquitinated (Ub) protein-aggregates, while at the same time increasing its

capacity for proteasome-mediated degradation—ultimately enabling the parasite to

resolve heat-shock-instigated stress and survive febrile-temperatures.

1060

Figure S5. QIseq data-correlations within and between Pilot-Library Screens.

A. Pearson correlations between 5' and 3' QIseq data for 37°C_ideal-growth screen and

41°C_heat-shock screen indicate highly reproducible analyses across technical and

biological replicates in both screens (Figure 1B).

B. Correlations within and between 37°C_ideal growth screen and 41°C_heat-shock

screen QIseq data. The samples were collected in HS-Screens of the pilot-library include

two bio-reps and three technical-reps (Figure 1A; Method, HS-Screen). High correlations

of two bio-reps within both HS-screens and Growth-screens (HS-Screen, R=0.94;

Growth-Screen, R=0.89) indicate the pilot-library screens are highly reproducible, and

weak correlation between HS-screens and Growth-screens (R = ~0.42) suggests heat-

shock exposure-conditions were sufficient to allow reproducible detection of mutants

with specific selection response-phenotypes from pooled screening.

1073

Figure S6. *pB*-mutant insertions are randomly distributed in the pilot-library and

the 1K-library.

S6A. Comparative analysis of the *piggyBac* mutants' distribution patterns in coding vs

noncoding regions between the pilot-library and 1K-library. Distribution patterns between

intergenic regions and CDS are almost equal, with composition also reflecting the

distribution of the saturation mutagenesis-library as a whole[6].

S6B. *pB*-mutants' distribution patterns across HS phenotype-categories of the 1K library.

HS-Tolerant mutants were more likely associated with dispensable genes (genes with

exonic insertions) than HS-Sensitive genes.

S6C. Distances between insertions of the 1K library are random. There is no significant

difference in distance between each pair of neighboring *piggyBac* insertions of the 1K

library and coordinates chosen by random sampling (p-value = 0.787, Mann-Whitney U

test). Sampling was repeated 100x with sites randomly selected across all

chromosomes.

1088

Figure S7. Reproducibility of the 1K-library HS-Screen.

A. The 1K-library consists of randomly selected, uncloned large mixed-population pools

(LMPP) of ~100 unique mutants per pool. Fifteen insertion-sites are duplicated in

mutants of at least one other pool. Each of the 12 LMPP comprising the 1K-library

(LMPP_1-6; LMPP_10-15) are indicated on the x-axis with violin plots showing the

distribution of mutant fold change in response to heat shock (FC-HS) within that pool.

FC-HS of the fifteen insertion-sites duplicated in at least one other pool are plotted in

color, with insertion location-category indicated by shape.

B. FC-HS of duplicated insertional mutants are highly correlated across pools (Pearson

correlation = 0.806), indicating high reproducibility of mutant phenotypes independent of

mutant pool-composition. Insertions are represented as in plot A.

1100

Figure S8. Reproducibility within and between the pilot-library and 1K-library HS-

Screens.

A. Within- and between-library consistency indicates the robusticity of HS phenotype-

assignments in pooled screening. Dynein heavy chain (DHC) gene-family mutants (two

in DHA_12, PF3D7_1202300; one mutant of DHA_10, PF3D7_1023100) were

consistently identified as HS-Sensitive in the pilot-library and across multiple pools of the

1K-library, as were representatives of FIKK-family genes.

B. Heatshock phenotypes are reproducible between the pilot library and the 1K-library.

FC-HS of insertional mutants in genes represented in both the pilot library and the 1K-

library (n = 16 genes; colored points) are highly correlated (Pearson correlation = 0.702).

Insertion coordinate in the pilot library is indicated on the left of the '||', while insertion

coordinate of the mutant in the same gene in the 1K-library is to the right. Distance

between the pilot-library insertion and the 1K-library insertion is indicated by shape

(maximum distance = 1kb).

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1117   **Figure S9. Phenotypic Fitness-Score in HS (PFS$_{HS}$) distribution across mutant HS**

1118   **phenotype-classifications in the 1K-Library screen.** See Table S2 and Methods for

1119   PFS$_{HS}$ calculation details. HS-Sensitive mutants (mutants displaying defective growth in

1120   response to heat shock but not in response to ideal growth conditions) are assigned the

1121   lowest PFS$_{HS}$, while HS-Tolerant mutations are assigned the highest PFS$_{HS}$.

1122

1123   **Figure S10. QIseq data-correlations within and between Pilot-Library phenotypic**

1124   **screens: drugs and oxidative stress.**

1125   All pooled phenotypic screens of pilot-library (AS, DHA, BTZ, oxidative stress, ideal

1126   growth) were performed in biological duplicate, high correlations of bio-reps indicate

1127   highly reproducible analyses across all pilot-library phenotype screens.

1128

Figure S11. Methods and validation for comparative RNAseq.

A. RNA sample-collection methods for wildtype malaria-parasite NF54 vs. two HS-

Sensitive *pB*-mutant clones **ΔDHC (PB4) and ΔLRR5 (PB31)** in response to febrile

temperatures. Assays were performed in biological duplicate.

B. Validation of HS-Sensitive mutant-clones during RNA-Seq Sample preparation**.** Both

mutants grown individually had growth-defects in response to HS as compared to NF54.

1135

Figure S12. Complementary methods (pooled phenotypic screening, phenotypic

transcriptional profiling of HS-Sensitive mutants vs. wildtype in response to heat

stress) indicate genes driving the parasite heat-stress response.

A. HS-Sensitive *pB* mutants tend to have mutations in genes that have significant

changes in expression in response to heat-stress, while mutants that are neutral to or

tolerant of heat-stress tend to have mutations in genes that are not regulated in

response to heat-stress.

B. *pB* mutants in genes normally up-regulated in response to heat-stress grow poorly in

response to heat-stress (i.e., have significantly lower phenotypic fitness-scores) than

mutants in genes that are neutral or down-regulated in response to heat-stress.

1146

Supplemental Tables:

Table S1A. Pooled HS-Screen results of the *P. falciparum pB*-mutant pilot-library

(n = 128, Fig. 1).

S1B. Summary counts of pilot-library mutants by phenotype-category in pooled

screening.

S1C. GeneIDs, functional information, and distance to the insertion-site for neighboring

genes on both sides of *piggyBac* insertions of the pilot library.

1154

1155 **Table S2A. Pooled HS-Screen results of the 1K-Library (n = 922, Fig. 2).**

1156 **S2B.** Summary counts of 1K-library mutants by phenotype-category in pooled screening.

1157 **S2C.** GeneIDs, functional information, and distance to the insertion-site for neighboring

1158 genes on both sides of *piggyBac* insertions of the 1K-library.

1159

Table S3. Comparative RNAseq-results between NF54 and HS-Sensitive mutant-

clones *ΔLRR5* and *ΔDHC* in response to heat-shock (Fig. 3).

S3A. All genes classified into HS response-categories in NF54 with or without exposure

to heat-shock using RNAseq data (n = 2567). HS-classifications for each gene in two

HS-Sensitive mutant-lines are indicated where available. Criteria for inclusion: NF54

expression above threshold (FPKM > or = 20 for at least one replicate in at least one

temperature-condition) and FC-HS supported by two biological replicates.

S3B. Genes included in functional enrichment-analyses. Criteria for inclusion: all genes

with expression above threshold AND agreement between replicates as to HS fold-

change classification for all three parasite lines (n = 1298).

S3C. Enriched GO-terms for specified HS-response-categories as included in Figure 3B.

"Annotated": the number of genes annotated to a given GO-term included in the analysis

for all HS response-categories. "Significant": the number of genes annotated to a given

GO-term in the HS response-category being tested for enrichment.

S3D. Full functional enrichment-results for all HS response-categories.

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Table S4. Apicoplast genes regulated in response to HS (Fig. 4).

S4A. Apicoplast-targeted genes regulated in response to HS (RNAseq data used in

Figure 4A-B).

S4B. GO-terms mapped to HS-regulated apicoplast-targeted genes (pertains to Fig. 4C).

S4C. Pooled heatshock-screen data for all mutants associated with processes of interest

highlighted in Figures 4D-E.

S4D. Comparative wildtype/HS-Sensitive mutant RNAseq data for genes associated with

processes of interest highlighted in Figure 4E.

1184

Table S5. Drug- and oxidative stress-screen results of the pilot library (n = 128).

Table S6A-B. Data pertaining to Figure 5C and 5D.

Table S7. QIseq dataset accession numbers.

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Figure 1.

Pooled screens of an extensively characterized *pB*-mutant pilot-clone-library allow robust identification of heat-shock phenotypes

Figure 2. **Pooled phenotypic screens scaled up to a 1K-*pB*-mutant library enable identification of processes driving the *P. falciparum* heat-shock response**

A

HS-Sensitive   HS- and Growth-Sensitive   HS-Neutral   HS-Tolerant

FC-HS < 0.5

FC-HS > 1.5

FC-HS & Growth (Log 2)

DHC_12A
DHC_10
DHC_12B

pB mutants ranked by FC-HS (low to high)

B

regulation of translation

structural constituent of ribosome

−log2(p−value)

cellular response to DNA damage stimulus

rRNA-processing

structural molecule activity

Protein folding metabolic process

10.0

hemoglobin catabolic process

dynein complex
COPI vesicle coat

ribosome binding

8.0

cytosolic small ribosomal

binding

DNA repair

regulation of vesicle-mediated transport

Translation
ATPase activity

6.0

ER to Golgi vesicle-mediated transport

metal ion binding

glutaminase activity

mRNA processing

4.0

2.0

Growth-Sensitive

0.5

HS-Sensitive

0.8   0.6   0.4   0.2   0.2   0.4   0.6   0.8

Fraction of genes

Biological process
Molecular function
Cellular component

0   2   5   20
Number of genes

Figure 3.

Unfolded protein response, apicoplast-targeted and mitochondria-targeted stress-response pathways are critically dysregulated in functionally unrelated HS-Sensitive mutant clones.

A

Expression profile — WT — ΔLRR5 — ΔDHC

↑↑↑
↑↗↗
—↑↑
↓↓↓

log2_FC-HS
(FPKM_41°C / FPKM_37°C)
−2 −1 0 1 2

B

Expression patterns
↑↑↑
↑↗↗
—↑↑
↓↓↓

Fraction of genes

-log10(p-value)
0 4 8 12 16 20

C

Expression profile (HS)	Gene ID	Symbol	Gene Description
↑↑↑	PF3D7_0708400	HSP90	heat shock protein 90
	PF3D7_0209300	IspF	2C-methyl-D-erythritol 2,4-cyclodiphosphate synthase
	PF3D7_1119100*	tRNA-m1G*	tRNA m(1)G methyltransferase, putative
	PF3D7_1037100	PyKII	pyruvate kinase 2
	PF3D7_1439900	TIM	triosephosphate isomerase
	PF3D7_1115700	FP2A	cysteine proteinase falcipain 2a
	PF3D7_0810800	PPPK-DHPS	hydroxymethyldihydropterin pyrophosphokinase…
	PF3D7_1342800	PEPCK	phosphoenolpyruvate carboxykinase
	PF3D7_1129400	NOP2	rRNA (cytosine-C(5))-methyltransferase, putative
	PF3D7_1442500	N/A	geranylgeranyl transferase type-2 subunit …
	PF3D7_0602500	N/A	geranylgeranyltransferase, putative
↑↗↗	PF3D7_1337200*	DXS*	1-deoxy-D-xylulose 5-phosphate synthase
	PF3D7_0218300*	N/A	apicoplast RNA methyltransferase (apico-RNA-methyl)
	PF3D7_1239600	ThzK	hydroxyethylthiazole kinase
	PF3D7_1214200	SET5	histone-lysine N-methyltransferase, putative
	PF3D7_1128400	FPPS/GGPPS	geranylgeranyl pyrophosphate synthase, putative
	PF3D7_1437400	PANK2	pantothenate kinase, putative
	PF3D7_1426200	PRMT1	protein arginine N-methyltransferase 1
	PF3D7_1103400	SufD	FeS cluster assembly protein SufD
	PF3D7_0628800	GATB	glutamyl-tRNA(Gln) amidotransferase subunit B
	PF3D7_1443900	HSP90	heat shock protein 90, putative
	PF3D7_1019800	N/A	tRNA methyltransferase, putative
	PF3D7_1450900	N/A	acetyl-CoA acetyltransferase, putative
	PF3D7_0218600	N/A	conserved Plasmodium protein, unknown function

Figure 4. Apicoplast isoprenoid biosynthesis is critical for *P. falciparum* survival of febrile temperatures

Figure 5.

Increased sensitivity to fever is directly correlated with increased sensitivity to artemisinin in the malaria parasite